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ABSTRACT

Numbers 3 through 5 of the 1981 TECFORS newsletter include these articles: "Pre-Writing Activities" (Sandra L. McKay); "Errors in Advanced-Level Discourse" (Robert B. Kaplan); "Sensory Imagery" (Elizabeth Jamison Hodges); "Introducing Advanced Concepts of Reading and Writing in the Beginning ESL Class" (Christine Pearson); "On Looking into Adult ESL Reading" (Kerry Segel); "Individualizing Composition in a Heterogeneous Class" (Rosalyn M. Smith); "Writing to Learn and Learning to Write" (Martha Johnson); "Writing to Your Audience" (Johnnie Johnson Hafernik); "Setting Up an Adult Reading Course" (from a University of Texas course announcement); "Maintaining Professional Integrity" (Regis L. Welch); and book reviews and notes on professional activities. (MSE)

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TECFORS

A newsletter for instructors of writing
and reading to ESL and bi-lingual (adult) students

Volume IV | May, 1981 | Number 3

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TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

PRE-WRITING ACTIVITIES

The teaching of ESL composition has been operating under a paradigm which has tended to emphasize the composed product rather than the composing process. In the hopes of helping students write mechanically "correct" essays, a great deal of ESL composition class time is devoted to usage exercises. Unfortunately, such exercises are often not directly related to the writing task that the students are later asked to do. Obviously, writing an essay involves the dual task of deciding what to say and how to say it, and rarely do good writers separate the two. Instead, they give attention to both aspects in order to fulfill what they see as their purpose in writing.

A composition class which deals with the composing process, not just the product, must help students to both develop a topic and find the most appropriate and correct way to express this topic. Pre-writing activities, then, should help students do several things.

First, these activities should help students to recognize their reasons for writing. Various types of value clarification exercises could be used to help students determine why they are writing. If the answer is always because they are required to, then perhaps we need to do more with providing additional reasons for writing. This may involve having students write for other members of the class or for audiences other than the teacher, whether these audiences are real or hypothetical.

Secondly, pre-writing activities should help students to explore a topic. Sandra Perl (1980:365) points out that any topic initially evokes in a writer "a felt sense"; it calls forth images, words, ideas and feelings. The composing process, according to Perl, begins with <u>paying attention</u>, with taking the topic in and seeing what it evokes in the writer. Thus, every student when given a topic will have a variety of personal associations evoked by the topic. In order to help students pay attention to a topic and examine what associations it draws forth, we might merely ask them to write down what they know about a topic and how they feel about it. These ideas could be gathered individually or by the class as a whole and need not be in sentences or in any particular sequence.

The third thing that pre-writing activities should do is to help students consider their options for organizing and expressing a topic. All topics, of course, are amenable to several types of rhetorical patterns and levels of discourse. Selecting the most appropriate rhetorical arrangement and style rests on one central question, namely, the writer's purpose in addressing a particular audience. Some attention then needs to be given to helping students analyze their relationship with a particular audience. One strategy for doing this is described by Pfister and Petrick (1980:214). Before any writing is done, they ask students to consider questions such as the following:

--What is my audience like? What is their socioeconomic status, their educational and cultural experience, their values?
--What does my audience know about the topic?
--What is my relationship with this audience? What is my purpose in addressing this audience?
--What are the best methods for achieving my goals in terms of organization, tone, diction, etc.?

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Such an analysis provides a context for deciding which rhetorical arrangement and level of discourse is most appropriate to meet the objectives of the writer. Once these decisions are made (e.g., the essay will involve classification and comparison, and be in a formal register), there is a basis for determining which syntactic structures might be introduced or reviewed. If the essay will involve comparison and contrast, then some class time could be devoted to comparative adjectives and conjunctions of contrast. In other words, the teacher needs to analyze which type of syntactic structures are likely to occur in a composition and to relate class exercises on these structures to the particular writing topic at hand. In this way, attention to form is done within a rhetorical framework.

Clearly it is time for ESL composition classes to become concerned with the composing process and not just the product. This means that every writing task should be preceded by a number of pre-writing activities. These activities should be designed to accomplish two things. First, they should help students discover what to say; this can be done by encouraging students through heuristic devices such as brainstorming, to pay attention to a topic and see what it evokes in them. Secondly, pre-writing activities should provide students with some practice in the rhetorical and syntactic patterns that the expression of their topic will likely draw on. If in our pre-writing activities we give attention to both of these concerns, we will have provided our students both with something to say and with a way to say it.

--Sandra L. McKay
San Francisco State University

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ERRORS IN ADVANCED-LEVEL DISCOURSE

The question of error gravity is a complex one. Richards (1981) notes that there are three ways to look at the issue: through the degree to which non-native language performance influences comprehensibility, through the attitudes of native speakers to non-native discourse, and through the indirect effects of errors (e.g., the way in which teachers react to errors in the classroom). Early efforts in this study focused on syntax, with lesser concern for semantics and lexis (James 1974); Burt and Kiparsky (1974) distinguished local and global errors and discussed the differential effect of such errors, but Morrissey (1979) noted that any attempt to define extent of interference must include more than purely linguistic criteria (i.e., the presumption that global errors will hinder communication more than local errors implies that interference at the level of a single constituent necessarily will not significantly hinder comprehensibility and ignores a variety of semantic and pragmatic considerations). Halliday and Hasan (1976) inventoried various elements of cohesion, and Johns (1979) looked at aberrant use of cohesive elements as an error type impeding comprehensibility. Martin (1979) looked at spatial and chronological hierarchies as opposed to heuristic hierarchies as an error type impeding comprehensibility. All of this simply illustrates the fact that it is no easy task to pinpoint a particular error type as contributing most to absence of comprehensibility or to identify a particular error type as particularly grave.

A second issue relates to the language of which the learner is a native speaker rather than to English; that is, the strategies which may be most rhetorically effective in that student's native language may not be available in English, or may be differently distributed in English, or may serve a different rhetorical purpose in English. This claim seems justified whether one defines the term strategy in syntactic terms, in semantic terms, in pragmatic terms, or in rhetorical terms.

With respect to the three ways in which one can look at error gravity (as defined by Richards 1981), there are obvious significant differences between the kinds of problems that bother teachers (linguists) and the kinds that bother users, as Widdowson (1979) has pointed out. It is very clear that the kinds of error correction normally stressed in the classroom are most easily defined in terms of teacher bias and not in terms of any sort of interference with comprehensibility. For example, I recently received a letter from a friend which contained the following bit of text:

> We bought a gas station in Oregon. We will be leaving at the end of March. John one of the boys that worked at our old station. He's going up with us. Were all very excited.

The writer is an adult native-speaker of English. The sentence fragment in the middle line of the text is the sort of error that a teacher would be likely to leap at, though I think one would have to acknowledge that the error does not in fact interfere with the comprehensibility of the text. (It may however have some sociolinguistic implications unrelated to comprehensibility.) The point again is that gravity of error is a slippery notion, depending upon the concerns of the person doing the defining.

In fact, it seems to me that, at the advanced level--the level at which one assumes that the majority of intrasentential syntactic errors have been eliminated--frequency and gravity of error (not necessarily in complementary distribution) must be defined at the intersentential level and must involve problems in topicalization (in the larger sense--in the sense of describing the "aboutness" of the text), in cohesion, and in coherence (i.e., in the relative logicality of the argument and in the use of the very large number of syntactic and semantic devices which operate to give a text unity). It is extremely difficult to attribute cause in the study of the nature and relative distribution of such errors. Some clearly can be traced to interference from the L_1 rhetorical system; some seem to come from deeper cultural considerations in the L_1; others perhaps come from an inadequate understanding of the available devices in the L_2 system. The literature in this area is growing rapidly. All of this is simply to say that I have some reservations about any claim to identify errors at the advanced level--however level or advanced are defined--whether in terms of frequency or in terms of gravity, with any single constituent, with any single syntactic function, with any single semantic operation, indeed with anything less than the full reticulated network which defines topicalization, cohesion, and coherence. Any attempt to do so runs the terrible risk of oversimplifying to the point that every pedagogical approach is negated and that even normal acquisition devices (assuming that they may function at this level of language) will be frustrated.

--Robert B. Kaplan
University of Southern California

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A REVIEW of Double Vision by Michael R. Lanzano. 1981. A reader published by Collier Macmillan International for advanced ESL students.

The book's title, Double Vision, reflects its basic organization, namely six sets of a two texts on a related subject. The texts differ in the style of writing and treatment of the subject. The first text of each set is written in an objective journalistic style, while the second text takes the more subjective approach.

The concept of contrasting two styles of writing is a novel one. However, two styles is the extent of the variety. Obviously one author produced all the texts. The opportunity to present a greater stylistic range was neglected in favor of homogenization of grammatical structures, level of difficulty and length. The overall level of the texts might be termed "high intermediate" instead of "advanced" because of the reasons cited above.

The topics, exercises and activites are varied and stimulating, though more suitable for young adults than for college-level foreign students. This reader meets a specific need: to provide a certain amount of readable and fairly interesting material at a very specific level, namely the 2000 to 2500 word vocabulary range.

--Ghislaine Kozuh
Intensive English Program
The University of Texas

EDITORS' NOTE

Our thanks go to the reader who reminded us that we had omitted some important information with Dr. Leki's review in our January issue, 1981, of R.B. Donald's WRITING CLEAR PARAGRAPHS. The publisher of this book is Prentice-Hall, Inc. It costs $8.50 and appears only in a paperback edition.

Although the following article (reprinted by permission from The Leaflet, copyright 1978 by the New England Association of Teachers of English) was not written for teachers of ESL students, we offer it in the hope that our readers will share their experiences with teaching this aspect of writing in the ESL classroom.

SENSORY IMAGERY

As a writer, a teacher of writing, and an instructor in children's literature over the years, I have found myself thinking often about the importance of using sensory imagery to enliven both poetry and prose. This is far from a new concept, but perhaps a re-emphasis upon it would help students make their own compositions more vivid.

We learn through our senses. By conveying sensory impressions in writing, we can provide readers with the vicarious experience they need in order to "walk into" what we write. Literature both old and new has multitudes of examples. Here are a few from "L'ALLEGRO" by John Milton:

Visual--
"Hard by, a cottage chimney smokes
From betwixt two aged oaks"

Auditory--
"Lap me in soft Lydian airs"

Tactile--
"She was pinched and pulled, she said"

Gustatory, olfactory, and visual--
"Then to the spicy nut-brown ale"

Kinaesthetic--
"And, stretched out all the chimney's length"

Parents and teachers can sometimes spot the child who may grow up to be an author. Often he or she will write more than demanded by school assignments and will read with enormous pleasure.

Adults can encourage a talented young person not only to keep a journal, but to put into it freshly experienced sensory impressions such as the color of tall grasses at twilight, the brush of wind across a daisy field, the taste of ginger ice cream, the feeling of tense muscles, and the welcome aromas from a kitchen.

Notes which capture sensory experience may some day provide a budding novelist (drawing as many do on memories of youth) with sharp tools. Trying to express that experience while it is new may at least result in more vivid writing.

Elizabeth Jamison Hodges
Author of four books for children

INTRODUCING ADVANCED CONCEPTS OF READING AND WRITING IN THE BEGINNING ESL CLASS

What are some of the specific skills that we expect foreign students to have acquired by the time they get to the university? We expect them to be able to read and follow directions, to get through large quantities of reading material without spending time on unnecessary details, and to use the structure and organization of a text, as well as underlining and note-taking, as study aids. Furthermore, they need to be able to write cogent essays, term papers, and reports (technical and non-technical), to take effective lecture notes, and to revise their own written work.

These skills, whether in the area of reading or writing, presuppose the existence of similar conceptual abilities. Students must be able to identify topics and supporting details and to bypass what is irrelevant; to comprehend various kinds of organizational patterns; to have a feeling for what is "supposed" to come next; to utilize common cohesive and transitional devices to follow or demonstrate a narrative, a process, a line of reasoning in lectures, reading material, and in their own written or oral work; and to "translate" from the nonverbal (charts, diagrams, maps, statistics) to the verbal and vice versa.

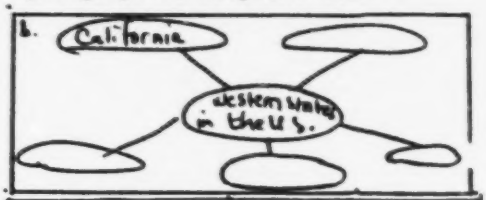
It is obvious that the skills and concepts described above are far too numerous to be dealt with in one or two terms of English language study. We have an obligation, therefore, to introduce them in our low level classes. We can do this if we accept the following assumptions: the traditional order of presentation of the four basic skills is not necessarily valid; students will acquire grammar skills as a result of doing what they need to do to read and write effectively; and finally, all adults of normal mentality are able to conceptualize. We will also need to omit the "isolated sentence" phase of the language learning process (No, it is not a prerequisite!) and, from the beginning, develop exercises that reflect a conceptual whole.

Let us look now at just one example--the "balloon" diagram, which can initiate a writing exercise or proceed from a reading selection.

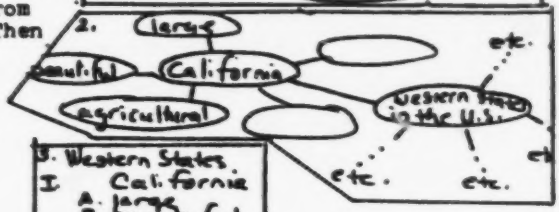
This series demonstrates the concept of generality-specificity (three levels) and its application in the areas of topic-supporting details, outlining, note-taking, and paragraph development and organization.

Writing Emphasis:

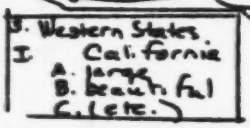
1. Fill in the diagram.



2. Discuss each state from diagram 1 in class. Then fill in the diagrams with appropriate adjectives.



3. Make an outline from your completed diagrams.

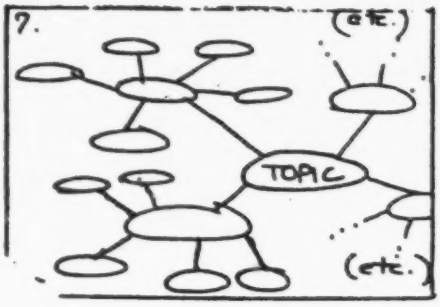


4. Write a short composition from your outline. Write a separate paragrpah for each state.

5. Choose an appropriate topic sentence from the list below. Add it to the beginning of your composition.
   a. Utah is one of the western states in the U.S.
   b. California and Arizona are western states.
   c. Each of the western states in the U.S. has its own character.
   d. The western states in the U.S. are hot and dry.

6. Discuss an appropriate concluding sentence in class. Add it to the end of your composition.

7. Now choose your own topic. Make your own diagrams. Write an outline and then a short composition. Your teacher will help you with a topic and concluding sentence.



8. Prepare an oral presentation from your composition. Your classmates will take notes.

9. Share and discuss your notes in class. Recopy them in outline form.

Reading Emphasis: (done from a prepared selection than can be outlined)

1. Underline the topic and key words in each paragraph.
2. Complete the balloon diagram from your underlined words. (The diagram can be partially filled out by the teacher if necessary.)
3. Write an outline from your balloon diagram.
4. Use your outline: a. as notes for an oral presentation
   b. as a study aid for a quiz
   c. as a model for your own outline and composition.

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As can be seen, this kind of exercise, as well as many others that deal with "advanced" skills and concepts, can be adjusted to fit any level of language competence. The concepts that underlie them remain the same whether we are talking about western states in the U.S. or the contributions of Galileo to human understanding. Likewise, they remain the same whether we are dealing with reading material, original written work, or oral presentations (both given and listened to).

We are doing our students a disservice by waiting until the high intermediate and advanced classes to introduce and integrate these kinds of language skills. We can and should introduce them to our beginning students. Likewise, we should,whenever possible, minimize the distinctions between the so-called four basic skills, the separate teaching of which may be contributing to our students' difficulties in working with the language in other than isolated units. Reading and writing well are in many ways inextricably tied to listening and speaking well. All require the creative and integrative powers of the mind, powers that we mistakenly seem to think disappear temporarily in the beginning language student.

--Christine Pearson
Monterey Institute of International Studies

AN ANNOUNCEMENT OR TWO--about the editors

If all goes well, this summer Nancy Lee will be in northeast China, teaching English teachers with a team from Goshen College. Elizabeth Baker, the secretary at the Intensive English Program,1103West 24, Austin,TX,will be handling subscription requests(while Nancy is away) and forwarding other mail to Ann Johns until August 1.

Ann Johns also has exciting news. She will be part of a teacher training team for a year, beginning the end of August, at the Shanghai Foreign Language Institute. She will be helping to train English language teachers in English, linguistics, methodology, and literature.

Since we have been assured many times of the need for a newsletter like TECFORS, we are committed to seeing that it appears regularly, regardless of our personal circumstances. However, we need your help. First, we solicit your articles and letters. Second, we have decided to seek a third editor (to join the two of us), preferably someone with special expertise in reading. Anyone interested is invited to send a letter and résumé to Ann Johns as soon as possible: American Language Institute, College of Extended Studies, San Diego State University, San Diego, CA 92115.

The TECFORS newsletter is published five times a year--in January, March, May, September, and November. The subscription rate is $3.00 ($5.50 international) per year. To subscribe, write Nancy V. Lee, Intensive English Program, 1103 West 24th St., Austin, TX 78705. Send manuscripts to her or to Ann M. Johns, American Language Institute, College of Extended Studies, San Diego State University, San Diego, CA 92115. Please enclose a stamped, self-addressed envelope with manuscripts.

TECFORS

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OUR CO-EDITOR IN READING

We are delighted to welcome Kerry W. Segel (B.A. in Political Science, University of Utah; M.A. in TEFL, University of Texas at Austin) to our editorial staff. He is currently working on a Ph.D. in Education (Reading and Applied Linguistics) at U.T.-Austin, and teaching reading/vocabulary development to both native and non-native speakers of English at Austin Community College and St. Edward's University.

After obtaining his B.A. in 1966, Kerry did graduate work in international relations and Middle East studies before joining the Peace Corps in 1969. He began his ESL teaching career in a small-town high school in Iran, later teaching for five years at the college and university level in that country. He began specializing in the teaching of reading in 1972 at the University of Isfahan and continued at the University of Texas Intensive English Program and Jundi Shapour University before joining the faculties of A.C.C. and St. Edward's. He has been responsible for the development of several ESL reading programs and has given papers and seminars on various aspects of ESL.

Kerry is married, speaks and reads Persian, and enjoys leisurely walking.

Under his guidance, TECFORS will now add a forum for the sharing of information on ESL reading. Whatever your interest--the reading process; program, curriculum, or materials; questions, comments, or answers--he looks forward to hearing from you.

QUESTIONS, COMMENTS, AND ARTICLES

These twenty questions are representative of those facing ESL researchers and practitioners in approaching the ESL reading task. Use these questions to broaden or focus your own thinking, and send us any comments, ideas, articles, or further questions they might stimulate.

1) How do I go about individualizing reading instruction with fifteen or more students in a classroom setting?
2) What are some ways to use audio-visual equipment in teaching reading?
3) How can we find sufficient time to introduce a wide variety of reading skills while also having enough time set aside for supervised intensive reading?
4) How and under what circumstances can we adopt or adapt materials written for native readers of English?
5) What ABE (Adult Basic Education) materials have been used with ESL students? What are their strengths and shortcomings?
6) What are some successful ways to deal with students who claim not to enjoy reading/learning ESL?
7) What is the role of listening in developing reading fluency?
8) How do we develop reading flexibility in students whose training in first-language reading emphasized memorization?
9) What are some successful ways of developing decoding fluency for those students whose native orthography is not Roman script?
10) To what extent should we use the ESL reading class as a means to increase the students' general knowledge--especially in cases where the students will be taking courses that subsume such knowledge (e.g., an American history course)?
11) How can I apply research findings to my classroom?
12) What models of first language reading are appropriate to ESL reading?

13) What is known about the effect of social and cultural norms on student performance in reading a second language?
14) What is known about determining reliability of texts for ESL students? Are there appropriate systems of text processing or propositional analysis for this task?
15) What is schema theory? What are its implications for second language reading?
16) What are the implications of the Monitor Model for teaching reading?
17) Who are the people currently doing research in ESL reading, and how can I find them?
18) How can I do research in my classroom that could be of direct benefit to my students and applicable to other classrooms as well?
19) Should we restrict or censor ESL reading materials based on political or moral grounds?
20) Is there a good student interest inventory available for adult ESL readers?

FOR YOUR BOOKSHELF

Reading in a Second Language: Hypotheses, Organization and Practice. Ronald Mackay, Bruce Barkman and P.P. Jordan, Eds. Newbury House Publishers, Massachusetts. 1979. 208pp. $7.95 in paperback.

This collection of thirteen articles, divided into three sections, explores the field of reading as it applies to ESL. According to the editors, Section I

> "introduces the second language teacher to the need for looking at reading...Section II deals with the organization of programs to teach second language reading, Section III with specific classroom techniques and instructional activities which can be placed within the investigative framework of Section I." (Introduction, p. ix)

Three of the articles emphasize advanced-level reading, but the book as a whole is applicable to all levels of ESL reading. The articles are highly readable, the authors represent a wide diversity of scholarship and teaching experience, and the text is the first of its kind in ESL reading. It's a must for your bookshelf.

ON LOOKING INTO ADULT ESL READING

When we analyze the subject "adults reading English as a second or foreign language," we find ourselves observing several sets of processes. There are the processes involved in mastering reading--often termed "decoding" and "comprehension." There are also the cognitive processes and affective variables particular to the adult learner. Then we have the processes termed second language acquisition--contrasting the learning of a first language to a second one. We must also consider the particulars of the language being learned--English--from the phonological and morphological combinations through semantics and syntax to discourse-level processing and pragmatics. Finally, there is the process of applying intervention strategies to the learning process--teacher, text, curriculum and program, in short, pedagogy.

It is necessary to keep this process orientation in mind if we are to understand why ESL reading is a nascent field. Throughout history man has been judged by his production--how well he speaks (oratory) and how well he writes (grammar, composition). Reading, as a process, has therefore been judged on the basis of its oral or written output and thus reduced to a passive skill requiring teacher intervention only on the most basic level of decoding. In reading pedagogy, comprehension was not taken seriously until barely a century ago. Even then, as in all foreign language teaching and learning, translation and grammar dominated. Now researchers in the field of reading are presenting models, theories, and hypotheses which must be considered very tentative at best--the process is both mystifying and complicated.

Why don't we know more about the reading process? The processes of cognition essential to reading have certainly been developing for as long as modern man has existed. As far back as 20,000 years ago humans recorded lunar and gestation cycles, demonstrating not only a primitive "writing" but also the compression of time onto

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a single surface (context on a page), order (primitive syntax?), and meaning (semantics?), marks which by their very organization and regularity could be understood by another (the precursor of the book?). For at least seven thousand years writing systems have existed. In 1981 we have sophisticated research equipment, carefully examined research paradigms, and many astute researchers, teachers and observers. Yet we know little with any certainty concerning the reading process. Why?

Simply because reading takes place within the brain. We can record the focal point of the eye to within a millisecond; we know the time involved for each eye fixation and the number of milliseconds that it takes the eyes to jump from one point to the next focal point (the saccade). When the eyes fix on a section of print, information from the left side of the focal point enters the right hemisphere and vice-versa. The neural signal stimulated by the print can be traced back to areas 17 and 18 of the visual cortex, where the processes of decoding and comprehension apparently originate; this is the essence of the reading process. We say "apparently" because here the signal is lost. We have essentially a "black box," where we know an input and can test an output. Knowing the processes is a matter of hypothesis.

The necessarily hypothetical insights into reading, its complex multi-process nature--these qualities should convince us, as program director, curriculum developer, or teacher, that one program, one strategy, one set of techniques or materials cannot be shown to work for all, always, and under all circumstances. When we consider the other aspects of our subject--the second language, English, adult learning styles and teaching styles--the importance of sensitivity to each individual's needs and abilities becomes obvious. We must think in terms of facilitating the reading process. We realize that the very limitations of understanding reading as a process means that it is difficult to predict with any precision the outcome of any direct intervention in the reading process. We must consider that both teacher and learner make both conscious and subconscious decisions that can facilitate or inhibit learning. The subconscious decisions are harder to detect and therefore require greater sensitivity on the part of both learner and teacher.

With a greater general sensitivity to the complexities of the reading and learning processes, a way to view the adult ESL reading process is to consider it involving an interaction of a cognitive domain and an affective one. A cognitive taxonomy may be illustrated in this summary by the taxonomy of B. Bloom and associates:

1.00 Knowledge: knowledge of specifics, knowledge of ways and means of dealing with specifics, knowledge of the universals and abstractions in a field
2.00 Comprehension: translation, interpretation, extrapolation
3.00 Application
4.00 Analysis: analysis of elements, analysis of relationships, analysis of organizational principles
5.00 Synthesis
6.00 Evaluation: judgments in terms of internal evidence and external criteria

The corresponding affective taxonomy--receiving, responding, valuing, organizing, and characterizing by a value complex--is concerned with "interest,""appreciation," "attitudes,""value," and "adjustment." These brief descriptions of taxonomies, each of which is elaborated in a single volume, are concerned with learning in general; yet almost all of the areas can easily be used to obtain information and insight from the printed page. Once we conceive of the possible types of learning behaviors that may occur in the reading act, then we should look at possible interactions of the individual learner: relating to the teacher, other authority figures, other students in the classroom, social and cultural peers, with oneself and with the reading material. All influence the student's reaction to the reading task at hand and the reading mastery process in general.

With a framework for understanding the ESL reading process, we are almost ready to explore research literature. First, we should prepare questions to ask, certainly including the following:

1. How do we determine the attitudes of the adult toward reading in a second language?

2. Do any of the psycho-motor limitations of the adult significantly affect reading progress?
3. How does the adult mind react when meeting linguistic input from a text?
4. What are the effects of social or cultural norms on developing reading mastery?
5. How does the adult's knowledge of a first-language written code affect the learning of the second?

Having prepared relevant questions, we are now faced with the task of finding the relevant research. Unfortunately, there is no review of research under the title of "second language reading for adults" and certainly no field by that name. Areas of research with relevance to this topic include first-language reading, child reading, second language acquisition, adult literacy, psychology of adult learning, linguistics, and certain "cross-discipline" areas--such as psycholinguistics and socio-linguistics. It must also be considered that much of this research was not done with ESL adults,and therefore its generalizability to this field cannot be assumed. However, considering that in 1970 there was no research concerning second-language reading for adults reported in the literature, substantial progress has been made in the last decade. Issues such as "interlanguage" and "error analysis/ subconscious vs. conscious learning (the Monitor theory); readability, vocabulary development, unsimplified vs. simplified materials; cultural contexts, discourse analysis, cohesion and coherence factors, and methods of teaching reading have been researched in second language acquisition and reading. The windows to the ESL reading process are small and few, but significant. We must make certain that what we see is considered in light of the complex sets of processes we collectively term "adult ESL reading."

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Kerry Segal
University of Texas at Austin

INDIVIDUALIZING COMPOSITION IN A HETEROGENEOUS CLASS

In a credit-granting academic ESL program, there are often problems placing students at the appropriate level. A number of factors militate against homogeneous grouping, including inadequate staff to teach several levels. Unlike an intensive program, academic ESL courses are sometimes overcrowded, and the instructor and department are under some pressure to generate additional student credit hours. Thus, it is sometimes very difficult to provide traditional compensatory instruction in grammar and composition to a mixed group. The notion of individualizing such instruction is most appealing, although it is not generally considered feasible.

Four years ago at West Virginia University, a colleague of mine, Gayle Nelson, developed some individualized materials to teach technical writing to foreign students in engineering. The materials were written using the Personalized System of Instruction, PSI, sometimes called the Keller Method. The premise was that students work at different speeds and receive individual assistance while progressing through the class materials.

The class at WVU was very successful and popular with engineering students. When I came to Texas Tech University in 1979, I decided to try to capitalize on the instructional advantages of PSI and the principles of technical writing by adapting the technical writing materials to a broad clientele, including students from technical and non-technical fields alike. We instituted an EFL course called "Advanced Grammar and Composition." With some trepidation, we enrolled students from such diverse areas as music, history, engineering, and home economics.

The class was run as follows: each student received a study guide explaining the course structure. After reading it, each student would ask for a readiness quiz on course procedures. All quizzes had to be passed with a grade of 90% or better or be retaken with no penalty. After passing the readiness quiz, students received a study guide for the first unit. When the students believed they were ready, they would ask for a quiz on a given unit. The quizzes were graded immediately. Answers were marked "correct," "incorrect," or "unclear." An unclear answer could be clarified orally and then in writing. If the student received a grade of 90% or better on the quiz, he received the next unit study guide, and so on. The final grade was determined by a take-home paper that demonstrated the various skills the student had

learned. Grades were assigned as follows:

All units completed and "A" on final = A
All units completed and "B" on final = B
All units completed and "C" on final = C

Most of the students received an "A."

The study guides were correlated to selected chapters in a technical writing text, Reporting Technical Information, 4th ed., Houp and Pearsall, Encino, Cal.: Glencoe Publishing Co., 1980. The topics covered included: introduction to PSI; the passive voice; comma splices, sentence fragments and fused sentences; an introduction to technical writing; gathering information; audience analysis; organizing your material; writing and revising your report; prose and mechanical elements; correspondence; proposals; a physical research paper; graphical elements; and conventions in technical writing.

There were two instructors available for individual help with study guides during class hours, myself, as the instructor of record, and a graduate teaching assistant, who received practicum credit for her work. We found this to be an adequate number of instructors for the 17 students enrolled.

We were reasonably certain the engineering students would do well with the materials. The pleasant surprise was how well people in the non-technical fields responded. In an evaluation done at the end of the class, students unanimously said they would take another PSI course if given the opportunity. The two major factors in this positive reaction were the self-pacing feature, which enabled some students to finish in eight weeks, and the personal, individual feedback from the instructors. Irrespective of the students' disciplines, we found common problems in organization, structure, clarity of thought, writing conventions, and, of course, grammar. With individual attention, students felt freer to ask questions and pursue lines of reasoning. It was also much easier to deal with students of different skill levels and backgrounds.

The class was a definite success, and we plan to offer it again next spring, open to students from all fields.

SAMPLE STUDY GUIDE

Reading Assignment: Chapter 7

Organizing Information

1. Describe in your words what Houp and Pearsall mean by "brainstorming." What is the key to the process?
2. Which, if any, of the following is true of the brainstorming process:
   a. It must be done in a group setting.
   b. One should be careful not to write anything down while brainstorming.
   c. You should evaluate each idea so you can decide whether to keep it or to discard it.
   d. Brainstorming should take no longer than 15 minutes.
3. Why is it a bad idea to evaluate or organize during a brainstorming session?
4. Describe, in detail, the method of brainstorming presented by Houp and Pearsall.
5. Honru has just completed brainstorming his research project. This task took four full hours and produced 8 pages of material. He realizes he has plenty of time to write his paper, but he decides to begin organizing, evaluating, and constructing his formal outline. What do you think of his idea? Explain your answer.
6. What should be the first thing you do when you begin to organize and evaluate your material?
7. Why do Houp and Pearsall suggest that you look for the key ideas and organizational patterns which support your purpose?
8. On what did Houp and Pearsall base their decision not to include a history of audience analysis in their chapter?
9. While planning a report on a new distillation process, Alain has included in his outline a large section on a theoretical explanation of the new process. The report is to be read by many plant technicians. What do you think of his decision? Explain your answer.
10. Do most writers use outlines? If so, what kind or kinds do they use? What type do they use most frequently?
11. Do you use outlines when you write? If so, what type do you use and why?

12. List at least three good reasons for constructing a formal outline.
13. What does it mean to "digress?" How can a good outline help solve this problem?
14. Discuss the relationship between audience analysis and a formal outline.
15. What are the parts of the formal outline?
16. Why do the authors suggest including a statement of the intended audience in your outline?
17. Which of the following is true of the formal outline?
    a. It is typically better to include both complete and incomplete sentences in order to be more logical.
    b. Students typically use sentence outlines more than topic outlines.
    c. In some outlines, it is acceptable to have a single division.
    d. The formal outline provides the writer with a rough draft of his table of contents.
18. What is the difference between a topic and a sentence outline?
19. Take a familiar subject area which you are interested in and imagine you are writing a report on it. Construct a topic outline of your report. Next, change the topic outline to a sentence outline. (You will be asked to show this outline to your proctors.) Which type of outline do you prefer? Why? NOTE: You can use the back of this page or another sheet of paper for your outline.
20. What is the advantage of writing topic outlines? What is the advantage of writing sentence outlines?

Rosalyn M. Smith
Texas Tech University

WRITING TO LEARN AND LEARNING TO WRITE

We know we cannot pour knowledge into students; yet we continuously try to do just that. We prepare and present what we have learned to students who half listen, half learn, and soon forget. These students, our captive audience, have about as much chanee to be actively involved in the classroom as they do in front of the T.V. Is it any wonder they are bored?

From Boredom to Involvement

Writing is one of the best ways to help students learn. It can lead them from boredom to active participation in their own education. For decades psychologists have been telling us that involvement precedes interest, and that unless students are interested and see value in what they are asked to learn, there is little chance they will retain it. Students should be asked to respond to new concepts and information in writing--to think through what they are studying; and as they struggle to analyze, criticize or summarize, they will make discoveries and begin to master new words. As they commit themselves, invest themselves through their writing, their interest will grow.

From Product to Process

Traditionally writing has been thought of as the province of the English teacher. If other teachers asked students to write, it was usually a test situation, such as an essay question given to evaluate what a student knew about the subject. Writing was considered an end product, somthing to be corrected. It was not seen as part of the learning process. Students dreaded writing, and teachers hated lugging home stacks of papers to be corrected. As class size grew, so did the use of multiple choice tests. Less and less writing was done, and writing skills deteriorated. Fortunately, a few teachers who believed in the importance of writing found ways to handle the paper load. These teachers and hundreds of others taking part in the California Writing Project (which now has centers in thirty-eight states, Europe, and Asia) helped teachers from other disciplines to see the vital role of writing in the learning process. "Writing across the Curriculum" courses are now offered on many college campuses in the summer, and in-service workshops are frequently offered during the school year. Teachers in these workshops have learned that students need to write for a variety of purposes, and that not all writing needs to be corrected. Some writing is done to brainstorm ideas, to give the teacher or

other students a response, to work through a problem step by step, or to summarize information being studied. These papers can be read quickly. All that is needed is a short response, a word or two of praise or a question to clear up an error or misconception. When students attempt to explain something in writing, they soon discover whether or not they know it. (How do I know what I think until I see what I say?) Writing gets the students thinking and helps the teacher to know what needs further clarification. A dialogue is established that encourages students to become involved in the learning process.

From Theory to Practice

Science, math, history, music, and industrial arts teachers from the San Diego Unified School District who attended "Writing across the Curriculum" workshops and then assigned writing, even reluctantly, were surprised by what happened. They discovered that students not only asked more questions and did better on exams, but that they wrote better as well. It seems that as students struggled to straighten out their thinking, many problems in syntax were straightened out as well.

In 1974, in Measuring Growth in Writing, Diederich summarized:

> I believe very strongly that noticing and praising whatever a student does well improves writing more than any kind or amount of correction of what he does badly and that it is especially important for the less able writers who need all the encouragement they can get.

For years researchers have been telling us that students' writing improves more rapidly when there are fewer corrections. I guess we just thought it was too good to be true.

Martha Johnson
San Diego State University

From Leslie Tsimbos comes a call for presenters in the field of ESL or cross-cultural communications for the 1982 Midwest Regional Conference on English in the Two-Year College (a regional arm of the National Council of Teachers of English). The conference will be held in Toledo, Ohio, on February 25-27, 1982.

Format for presentations can include panal discussions, demonstrations, materials preparation, etc. We hope to draw presenters from a wide area of the Midwest who are involved with ESL, hopefully but not necessarily at the community college level, although those in secondary, university, refugee, and adult education are also eligible and welcome. Those interested in participating in the conference as presenters, presiders, or recorders should contact me by phone or letter as follows:

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The TECFORS Newsletter is published five times a year--in January, March, May, September and November.

Send subscription requests ($3.00 per year, $5.50 international) to Nancy V. Lee at her address below. Manuscripts and correspondence may be sent either to her or to Kerry Segel. Manuscripts should be a maximum of four double-spaced typewritten pages and should be mailed with a stamped, self-addressed envelope enclosed.

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TECFORS

A newsletter for instructors of writing
and reading to ESL and bi-lingual (adult) students

Volume IV November, 1981 Number 5

WRITING TO YOUR AUDIENCE

One technique to help students adjust their writing styles to different audiences is suggested in Rhetoric Made Plain by Anthony C. Winkler and Jo Ray McCuen (1978: Instructor's Manual, p. 3)*, the text I use for an advanced college credit composition course for international students. Since this book was designed for American students, I have modified the suggested assignment: to write two different letters with the same purpose — to extend an invitation for dinner, but to two different audiences, (1) a potential business customer, and (2) one's ailing grandmother.

I begin by asking the students the different ways to invite someone for dinner, a party, a wedding, etc. We list these, rank them from most formal to least formal, decide when each type might be appropriate, and discuss obvious differences in register. Some ways included in our list are (1) a formal printed invitation — I show a wedding invitation to the class, (2) a business letter, (3) a friendly letter, (4) a phone call, and (5) a conversation. After reviewing the format of a business letter and a friendly letter, I suggest two situations.

The first situation is as follows: You are a salesman for a large corporation (a computer company, new car business, office equipment firm, etc.). A potential buyer whom you have met once at a social function will be in town for a few days next month. You are to write a note inviting your potential customer to dinner; your ultimate aim is to persuade your guest to give you an order.

After completing their letters, the students read each other's invitations either in groups or as a class. This sharing of letters generates much discussion and such questions as these: (1) Can I address the buyer by his/her first name? (2) Is it necessary to identify who I am and where I met him/her? (3) Do I mention subjects such as the weather? (4) Do I invite him/her to my home or a restaurant? (5) Do I invite his/her spouse also? (6) Do I tell the potential buyer I want to sell him X products? (7) How much detail do I give about my products? (8) Do I ask him to call me or do I set up a time and place? (9) What is the correct register to use? Of course, some of these questions are straight-forward (e.g. the first one), and others are a matter of personal style (e.g. question #7), but there are perimeters to what is acceptable in English and in the United States. Students can be given basic guidelines.

The second situation I give the students is as follows: Your spouse has been urging (nagging) you to invite your ailing grandmother, whom you have not seen in over six months, to your house for dinner. Write a letter and invite her dinner. Together we draw a verbal picture of "our" ailing

grandmother. (She is hard of hearing but refuses to wear her hearing aid. She dotes on our children, etc.) Now the students have a clear picture of the person to whom they are writing.

Again, when they share their letters, the students ask many questions about how to address people in the United States, and they explain what they say and write in their countries. It was obvious from some students' invitations that they did not really want their grandmothers to accept. One invitation included a menu that was composed of food which the author admitted "you cannot eat because of your health, but it is all my wife can cook."

When the students look at both very different letters, then, they see immediately that a writer must shape whatever he writes according to his audience and his purpose.

Johnnie Johnson Hafernik
World English Center
University of San Francisco

* Winkler, Anthony C. and Jo Ray McCuen. Rhetoric Made Plain. 2nd edition. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., 1978

A BOOK REVIEW

How To Handle The Paper Load. NCTE Publication, 1979. 139 pp.

What ESL instructor has not despaired over stacks of papers? While geared toward composition teaching in general, many of the work-saving suggestions in this collection of articles can be adapted to ESL writing. The authors, according to Gene Stanford, NCTE Committee on Classroom Practices Chair, have found that the traditional "assign-assess" approach is not necessarily the best answer to promoting student learning, but that ungraded work can be as effective as graded work, and that, at least during some stages in the writing process, students can serve as one another's editors, with teachers as their consultants. "These authors have devised a number of ways to become directly involved in the writing process--lab tactics, role playing, writing along with their students--instead of merely making an assignment and waiting for a set of papers to grade." (Introduction, p. xix) Further, they believe that focusing on all errors at once rather than the ones under current discussion only leads to frustration for students and teachers alike. All articles are written from experience, and many provide detailed models.

The twenty-seven contributions have been arranged in six sections. "Ungraded Writing" deals mainly with journals and class projects, "Teacher Involvement" with role playing and prompt feedback, "Student Self-Editing" with organizing peer self-help, "Practice with Parts" with division of labor between classroom and language lab, "Focused Feedback" with helpful grading shortcuts, and "Alternative Audiences" with aspects of peer group evaluation. Of these, sections one, two, and five probably would be the most helpful to our purpose. If you have been on the look-out for ways to reduce grading time without reducing student incentive, be sure to read How To Handle The Paper Load.

Ingrid Lansford
The University of Texas
at Austin

SETTING UP AN ADULT READING COURSE

Have you ever taken a course that prepares the adult to read? There are numerous elementary and secondary reading courses in higher learning institutions around the country and applied linguistics or TEFL/TESL courses that may be extended to include direct reference to or reference by analogy to the adult reader. Yet courses providing enough depth into the issue of the adult reader are, we gather, very few in number. One possible solution is for a number of interested students to find a faculty member who teaches a seminar and who would be willing to have that seminar focus on adult reading. This seminar should be in an interdisciplinary syposium format that would allow for whatever resources the college and community have to be included. Such an approach is being tried for the Spring Semester at The University of Texas at Austin. The description following is contained in a one-sheet flier sent to relevant departments, graduate advisors, and supportive faculty members.

EDC 396 (Unique #09140) Language Research Seminar
Dr. Thomas Horn, Spring 1982-Focus on Adult Reading

How do we categorize the adult reader? What is the "state of the art" in adult reading research? What is the relation of adult cognitive and affective processes to success in reading? How is reading in a second or foreign language different from reading in the first? Who can give insights into administration and program development in adult reading and study skills programs?

The Spring session of EDC 396 will be a symposium focusing on adult reading. Faculty members in several disciplines on the U.T. campus will be joined by off-campus adult reading education practitioners in making presentations on such topics as adult reading theory and research, adult learning strategies, the scope of the field of adult reading, second language reading, curriculum, development, and administration of adult education programs emphasizing reading, plus all-level reading topics of current interest. Students new to the reading field will be introduced to reading research procedures, and source materials such as the William S. Gray collection.

Each student in the course will research a topic of his/her own interest in adult reading, present a summary of findings to the other members of the seminar and a research paper. Grades will be based on the class presentation, the research paper, and class attendance and participation.

Prerequisite: Graduate standing

Books: A list of recommended texts will be made available at the first class meeting.

Time: Fridays, 9:00-11:30 a.m.

ATTENTION---Graduate students in:
-- adult education
-- reading
-- education administration
-- foreign language education
-- applied linguistics and ESL

If you are at an institution that has a course that prepares you to teach the adult reader, or would like more information on the seminar described here, please let us know at TECFORS.

A TECFORS Forum Article

MAINTAINING PROFESSIONAL INTEGRITY

Teachers who teach international students in regular English composition and literature courses often become very frustrated while trying to grade these students' formal essays. Sensitive teachers try to evaluate in ways which are fair and humane because they realize that most of the inadequacies of these essays are not matters of carelessness or lack of motivation. Instead, they are usually the result of the students' not having sufficient control of the fundamentals of the written system of English. Also, many of these students, in order to survive within a second language setting, have evolved a verbal style of English which is functional for their oral communication needs but which is unacceptable for written assignments. This intermediate language is usually the result of the second language learner's attempts to simplify English by omitting function words and grammatical inflections. However, these simplifications which are acceptable in oral communication become glaring errors in formal written English.

Teachers cannot help but admire the student motivated to study within a second language at the college level. But English teachers are faced with the difficult soul-searching and often heart rendering problem of evaluating written compositions according to accepted college level standards. They have to find methods of evaluation which do not compromise the validity of the course or the teacher's own professional integrity. Consequently, teachers cannot ignore or make special concessions for the irregularities in grammar, ambiguities in sentence structure and serious deficiencies in vocabulary and format.

To ease the frustrating grading problems, teachers often search English as a Second Language materials for information about evaluation standards, methods of correction and definitions of just what constitutes a serious error in communication. Unfortunately, little has been written on the subject of evaluation, and what is available does not approach the problem from the perspective of the teacher of traditional English. Almost all of what has been written about the non-standard usage of the non-native speaker is an explanation of the linguistic and psychological causes of errors in oral language rather than useful standards for correcting and evaluating written compositions for regular English courses.

This lack of guidelines about what should reasonably be expected from the non-native speaker competing in regular English composition and literature courses forces a teacher to base evaluative decisions on personal responsibilities to: (1) his students and their academic and professional needs, (2) the institution which he serves, (3) the English profession which he represents, and (4) his own professional integrity. These points have been arranged in this order for ease of discussion and not from a certainty of their order of importance.

Although English teachers are generally concerned about their students' psychological well-being, a teacher's major responsibility is to the student's academic progress. Almost all international students are learning English for practical career purposes; therefore, teachers must be primarily concerned with assisting them to learn acceptable methods of written communication so that their writing will not be an impediment to their further academic and professional development. In academia and the professions, error filled writing is viewed as an indication that the writer is either inadequate for the task or does not interpret the task as important. Consequently, teachers must correct rigorously so that students can learn that incomplete, incorrect and incoherent writing is now and always will be detrimental to their ability to compete successfully.

The teacher also has a responsibility to his institution to see that an earned credit reflects a reliable standard of academic accomplishment. If American institutions of higher education are to retain their credibility, they cannot award credits based on two sets of standards: one for non-native speakers of English and one for speakers of English.

In addition, English teachers have a responsibility to the English profession. All academic disciplines require the development of habits of preciseness and exactitude. English, however, not only requires these habits but also provides the means for students to learn and perfect these habits which are so useful in other disciplines. Consequently, teachers must require students in English, as in any other discipline, to demonstrate that they have learned a relevant body of material and have developed the skills to use this information.

Teachers also have a responsibility to their own professional integrity. Sometimes, teachers who recognize how difficult it is to use a second language competently for academic purposes are inclined to award grades based on an understanding of the student's problems rather than on demonstrated proficiency. However, to gloss over a student's inadequacies because of misguided sympathy denies the student an opportunity to learn from his mistakes; it also compromises the teacher's ethical standards. Conscientious English professionals recognize that they must require from non-native speakers as well as native speakers an appropriate amount of quality writing which has been accomplished within a set time limit. But teachers also have an obligation to show students in what ways and for what reasons they may have failed to meet minimum standards.

It has often jokingly been said that teaching English is a predicament rather than a profession. Teachers faced with the frustrating problems of evaluating the college level essays of non-native speakers are painfully aware of the truth of this seemingly humorous statement. However, in order to maintain professional and institutional integrity, English teachers must be aware of their responsibilities to set high standards and then to help students meet these standards.

Regis L. Welch
Paris Junior College, Texas

Editors' Note: Another point of view suggests that non-native writers should be graded differently, since students continually corrected for mechanical errors would then adopt the point of view that writing is primarily a mechanical and not a thought organization process--the result tending to be mechanically correct but superficial papers. How do you stand on this issue? Write us your opinions.

SELECTED ARTICLES ON ESL READING

Adamson, Donald. 1977. "Prediction and explanation," TESOL Newsletter, 11:4, 12-13

Been, Sheila. 1975. "Reading in the foreign language teaching program," TESOL Quarterly, 9:3, 233-242

Berman, Ruth. 1975. "Analytic syntax: a technique for advanced level reading," TESOL Quarterly, 9:3, 243-251

Cowan, J. Ronayne. 1976. "Reading, perceptual strategies, and contrastive analysis," Language Learning, 26:1, 95-109

Eskey, David. 1970. "A new technique for the teaching of reading to advanced students," TESOL Quarterly, 4:4, 314-321

NOTES FROM CHINA

From Nancy Lee, who was part of a Goshen College (Indiana) sponsored group of ESL teachers, who taught for eight weeks at the Northeast Institute of Technology in Shenyang, a large northeastern city in The People's Republic of China, and then traveled to cities in the general area of Shanghai, comes these comments.

A new and exciting time has begun in China as the country recovers from the Cultural Revolution, which ended only two years ago. Not only are the Mao slogans, painted on buildings everywhere during this revolution, now being washed and painted out or allowed to weather away, but also the people are literally rebuilding their country and are reaching out in friendship to Western people. Chinese teachers once sent to the country--and worse places-- to learn egalitarianism are now respected as the country moves ahead in its "Four Modernizations" program--science and technology, agriculture, the military, and industry. And no one is more warmly welcomed than the "foreign expert" from the United States who arrives to teach English.

I taught in an ideal situation--as part of a team sponsored by a college with which the university in Shenyang wanted to have a continuing relationship. Moreover, we had a director willing to negotiate patiently in our behalf. We spent each morning from 7:30-11:30 -- sometimes six days a week--teaching listening comprehension and conversation (as requested by the university) to classes of fifteen students, who were mostly science and English professors. In the afternoons we scheduled free conversation (which we took turns attending) as well as planned activities in our learning center, which our student assistants set up and staffed. We worked hard--but our students studied harder. It was these students who made the whole trip the wonderful experience that it was. Not only were they totally dedicated students, but also they became our friends. And our slight inconveniences (like being awakened by exercise music at 5:15 a.m.) turned into luxuries as we learned to know them.

This experience has taught me a little about the needs of Chinese students and scholars coming to the United States. Accustomed to a very simple lifestyle, they may have difficulty with the technology and affluence here. They need to be met at the airport and introduced not only to those responsible for their program here but also to American ways of handling transportation, communication (like the pay telephone), and shopping (I didn't see any supermarkets in China). They need to have furnished housing ready for them. And they need to be prepared for strange lacks, such as the absence of thermoses filled with boiling water. They will want someone with whom their leader can spend time discussing their program and problems. Many will need ESL training, especially in listening comprehension and conversation. They will want to attend other classes and learn to know Americans. They will come as friends from a vast country whose door is just now opening to western nations. Getting acquainted with them will be a rich experience for Americans.

ON REVIEWS

We know there are materials you use that you find so successful you want to share them with others. If you can send us a copy for our files (we have no budget for the purchase of materials), we will be glad to review those materials for you. Also, we would welcome papers from professional meetings. When you hear a paper (in the areas of composition or reading) that you find helpful, drop us a note and/or encourage the author to send us a copy, please.

A NEW PUBLICATION

The editors of the Curriculum Clearinghouse Newsletter, published four times a year, invite ESL teachers, curriculum designers, and administrators to submit 1-2 single-spaced pages of "sharings" concerning successful curriculums, changing curriculums, materials development (e.g. placement tests, integrative syllabi, specific innovative classroom materials in any of the skill areas) and research in ESL programs.

Contributions should be typed on dittoes with name and address at the end. Interested readers should then communicate with the author directly and/or with the CCH Newsletter for wider distribution of point of view and additional information.

Sharings do not preclude publication or presentation of full-length papers elsewhere; rather, we hope they will stimulate communication among ESL professionals.

Send inquiries and sharings to: Curriculum Clearinghouse Newsletter
110 Johnson Hall
Colorado State University
Fort Collins, Colorado 80523

BIBLIOGRAPHIES FROM ERIC

The September 1981 newsletter of ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics (ERIC/CLL) has recently updated ERIC database searches, available to anyone for $10.00 each. Included among the forty-three listed titles are the following:

Teaching Second Language to Adults
Teaching Reading in Adult ESL
English for Special Purposes
Vocabulary and Second Language Learning
Audiovisual Aids in ESL
Suggestopedia

Several of these subject areas have free one-page minibibiographies. For more information regarding these searches, free minibibliographies, and fact sheets, you need to write to:

User Services
ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics
2520 Prospect Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20007

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Send subscription requests ($3.00 per year, $5.50 international) to Nancy V. Lee at her address below. Manuscripts and correspondence may be sent either to her or to Kerry Segel. Manuscripts should be a maximum of four double-spaced typewritten pages and should be mailed with a stamped, self-addressed envelope enclosed.

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